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ABSTRACT

This discussion of bilingualism and second language learning concerns many linguistic considerations that figure in the problem of language instruction. The author reports on current research and on the ideas of several noted linguists. Topics considered in this study are the goals of the bilingual education program, reasons for becoming bilingual, a definition of bilingualism, bilingual dominance and balance, types of bilingualism, bilingual barriers, second language study, two kinds of language learning theories, the effective teacher, and test validity. Included also are reports of observations in bilingual classrooms and conclusions based on classroom observations. The summary from a national survey of linguistic methodology is provided along with a bibliography. (VM)

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RESEARCH ON BILINGUALISM

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to explore the nature of bilingualism and the findings pertaining to successful second language learning. Linguistic theories and classroom observations relating to successful language learning are included in this research.

The theoretical aspects of this study is based on a number of leading linguists' views: John B. Carroll, Clay B. Christensen and Robert Shawl, Leonard Newmark, William R. Parker, Robert Politzer and Charles Staubach, Sol Saporta and many others.

One aspect of this study pertains specifically to findings which compare second language instruction and language learning effectiveness in thirty-five countries. The starting age of the students and the geographical locations of the countries discussed in the summary are the prime variables.

Another aspect of this research project pertains to a summary and direct quotes relating to linguistic methods necessary for successful language learning.

Frieda L. Levinsky
San Diego, California
March, 1972

GOALS OF A BILINGUAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

1. To use English as a second language in an intercultural milieu created for the disadvantaged.

2. To establish bilingual programs for migrant workers with native language learning, but with English as the target language.

3. To organize, propose, estimate, and show a program content with pertinent intellectual ideas for low socio-economic children.

4. To devise a plan and stress particular strategic regions where language barriers result primarily because of economic poverty, lack of cultural exchange, or isolation.

5. To evaluate the environment of the disadvantaged, e.g., their home, family life, number of children, brothers and sisters in the same household, as well as of other relatives who may be living in the family.

6. To evaluate individual children's educational problems, particularly in some Southern California regions: e.g., San Diego, Riverside regarding the cause for truancy and delinquency.

7. To use particular measures that would help overcome language barriers: example, flash cards, home economic magazines or some other material brought in by students from their home environment, or provided by the classroom instructor.

8. To evaluate teacher-student learning activities and utilize self-correcting devices and techniques; for example, tape recorders or model micro-lessons which an individual student may listen to for self-correction.

9. To propose specific goals for those immediately responsible for the physical and emotional care of the student; for example, the parent, teacher, principal, or church member who may be well acquainted with the pupils home and school environment.

10. To instill a degree of tolerance and openmindedness for those wanting to implement innovative problem solving measures and methods (Elizabeth Ott, 1969).

WHY BECOME BILINGUAL?

Learning a second language is significant not only because an educated person should be able to understand his foreign neighbor's culture and customs by means of his neighbor's tongue, but also because not learning his foreign neighbor's language may show disinterest or even apathy for his way of life.

On the other hand, if a person attempts to learn his neighbor's language, he may generally also learn about his neighbor's customs and culture. Thus a person may learn to appreciate or to understand his neighbor's living standard and life style. For example: in Spanish we say, Tengo catorce años. In its literal translation, it means, I have fourteen years. This tells us that age or maturity is

associated with a state of possession. But in English I have fourteen years is associated with a state of being, which has a temporary connotation, or it implies change. For example, I am, I was, or I will be.

Howard Howe II, United States Commissioner of Education, points out that European youngsters (unlike American) tend to adjust easily to their neighbor's way of life, because they learn their foreign neighbor's diverse cultural customs while studying his tongue (Howe, 1969). But American students, states Howe, frequently isolate themselves from cultural diversity. Howe believes that cultural diversity not only helps to ease international relations, but most importantly, it may aid in diminishing domestic racial discrimination and prejudice. "For the whole history of discrimination is based on the idea that because someone else is different, he is somehow worse." By teaching all American students, regardless of color or national origin, that cultural diversity is not feared but accepted, even encouraged, we may find less distrust and hatred among all people, not only Americans (Howe, 1969).

DEFINITION OF BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism may be defined as the ability to be fluent in two languages. It involves not only speaking and writing in two different tongues,but also the ability to comprehend the meaning of what others attempt to say, either orally, or in writing. A truly bilingual person is almost

as comfortable in a second language as he is in his mother tongue; he is able to understand, speak, read, and write in two languages easily (his native and a second language) and relatively accurately (M.E. Smoth, 1935).

Only a few individuals, however, are truly bilingual. Most of those persons considered bilingual still use one language to a greater extent than another. A youngster may, for instance, be regarded as bilingual in several combinations of instances: he may understand two languages (his native tongue and a second language); he may be able to speak two languages but write only in one, etc. One may conclude that there is no concensus of opinions regarding the arbitrary definition as to who may be considered truly bilingual (A.T. Jersild, 1960).

BILINGUAL DOMINANCE AND BALANCE

Bilingual dominance means that in spite of a person's ability to use two languages, he is more proficient in one than in the other. When a person is equally competent in two languages, then he is regarded as bilingually balanced. This balance usually pertains to speaking, reading and writing abilities, respectively (Smoth, 1957 and 1961).

The only way that bilingual dominance or balance may be determined is by considering the learner's fluency and accuracy in two languages which he uses. When a learner

becomes fluent in the second language, his speech patterns become automatic. Rather than considering linguistic processes, he is able to concentrate on the appropriateness and organization of what he wants to say. He now speaks fluently without hesitation and with few grammatical errors (Smoth, 1957 and 1961).

A person's dominant speech patterns depend largely upon the conditions under which he became bilingual. At the present time most bilingual youngsters in the United States have foreign-born parents. Generally, they hear their parents' language in the neighborhood, as well as at home (Smoth, 1957 and 1961).

Upon a student's entrance into school his contact with English speaking people usually helps him to learn English as a second language. But because his parents' language surrounds his environments to a greater extent than English, which he uses in school, he may become more fluent in his mother tongue than in English, especially, since he may spend more time with his parents and friends in his neighborhood than in school. His mother tongue remains his dominant language (J.P. Soffietti, 1955).

American youngsters or adults living abroad learn quickly the language in which they reside. They may learn their native tongue from their family members or friends, because of their close association with them. Their native language, however, often becomes limited to conversation skills (William R. Parker, 1954).

But in the United States and abroad, some upper socio-economic groups have foreign-born nurses or maids, who instruct their youngster in a second language from the day he begins to talk, hoping that he will "speak like a native." This type of instruction, however, limits the pupil's second language vocabulary to that of the nursery and only allows him to communicate with family members or friends. But the individual's linguistic dominance or balance will depend largely upon the amount of time that he spends in his home environment (Parker, 1954).

On the other hand, those American students who attend private schools often study a second language, generally, French, and tend to become bilingual in it. This may be due to a favorable environment stimulating instructors, bright students' curricula as well as intensive second language (J.V. Jensen, 1962).

We may conclude that the effect bilingualism has on students may depend largely upon (1) the circumstances under which a person has become bilingual, and (2) the relationship of the student's dominant language to that of the neighborhood, school, and peer group. The peer group may influence an individual's emotional and social speech patterns and develop (or help develop) his personality (Smoth, 1957, 1961).

SOME INSIGHT REGARDING LEARNING TWO LANGUAGES

Each language has its own vocabulary, grammatical structures, words, meanings, variety, pronunciation of

sound or sound combinations. A student who is learning two languages simultaneously has to learn two different sets of vocabulary for each object which he names, or for every thought he wants to express. He has to learn two sets of grammatical structures--one often in direct contrast with the other. In addition, he must learn the pronunciation of the same sound combinations differently. The (r) for instance, is pronounced differently in English than in French, though it has the same Latin printed letter. These learning procedures are recognized as being very difficult for junior or senior high school students because their native speech patterns are usually fully developed. They may be even more difficult for a pupil who may not have mastered his native tongue adequately enough to feel at ease under most circumstances. Consequently, the learner may combine the two languages which he is learning and fail to keep them separated into two unique and distinct linguistic speech patterns (N.T. Darcy, 1953 and Jensen, 1960).

When a youngster begins to learn a second language after he has mastered his mother tongue, his second language may prove to be different from that of a native speaker, mainly because he may be unable to hear the correct sounds as a native does. (See observation No. 3, page 40.) There are, of course, exceptional second language students and instructors who have an innate ability to master correctly pronunciation patterns.

WHAT ARE SOME TYPES OF BILINGUAL INDIVIDUALS?

The majority of bilingual persons have a dominant language. When a youngster's dominant language differs from the language of his friends at school or play, he may have difficulty in speaking the second language. This difficulty in communication increases his potential for social adjustment. The best opportunities for his social adjustment may be attained if the pupil meets with other peers whose parents are of the same national origin, in school or in the neighborhood, and are equally bilingual (Fishman, 1955 and Smoth, 1961). Some linguists, however, believe that if a person's second language becomes his dominant tongue, he may speak it with an accent which he may never lose completely (F.G. Koenig, 1953). (See observation No. 3, page 40).

Furthermore, the pupil is likely to make more grammatical errors in his second language (English) than a monolingual of the same age and intelligence level. Because of his inability to express himself correctly in the second language, he may become self-conscious when speaking. (Jensen, 1962 and J.P. Soffietti, 1955). A person's uneasiness and tenseness may cause him to stutter and intensify his speech and hamper his social adjustment (C.S. Bluemel, 1957).

Upon attempting to express himself, the individual may become aware of boredom or annoyance among those around him and cause him to become a "quiet person." Quiet people who contribute little to the group often feel neglected or

rejected. Under such circumstances a bilingual person may have communication problems which could conceivably effect their personality development (W.R. Holland, 1956 and Koenig, 1953). From my personal observations, I have seen college students whose bilingualism hampered their social adjustment, because they preferred to remain among their own group. However, Holland's and Koenig's theory does not apply to all bilingual individuals. Maturity and the number of years that a person speaks or has studied a second language must be considered as significant variables.

Academic problems may arise because a pupil's dominant language is other than that of his peers. Because he may be linguistically unprepared for school, he may feel insecure to a greater extent than most monolingual students entering school (Holland, 1956 and Smoth, 1961).

Anatasi, Cordova, Kittel, and Lewis found that Puerto Rican youngsters have segregated themselves into their own group, and became apathetically passive when they had to cope suddenly in an all-English school predicament. They tended to have a greater language difficulty than monolinguals in those subjects requiring reading accuracy, comprehension, and hearing vocabulary. Arithmetical word problems also proved difficult. Monolingual students spoke with greater accuracy, better usage of grammar and pronunciation than the bilingual students. (Sister M.A. Carrow, 1957). However, the same study concluded that reading ability

differed less than speaking ability among monolinguals and bilinguals. This occurred primarily because both groups had equal time spans in formal classroom instruction (Carrow, 1957). The researchers question the validity of tests administered in English to bilingual students, because the tests often reflect linguistic difficulties (A. Anastasi, 1953, J.E. Kittel, and D.G. Lewis, 1959).

WHAT ARE SOME BILINGUAL BARRIERS?

Learning two languages simultaneously may often delay a stadent's speech development in both languages. His greatest difficulty may come with attempting to learn vocabulary, constructing lengthy negative sentences, and articulating. (See observation No.3, page 40). Incorrect articulation may particularly hamper a pupil's ability to speak fluently (Bluemel, 1957, Darcy, 1953, and Smoth, 1935). However, exceptions do exist, especially among some gifted students.

Upon studying third-grade learners' achievements in linguistic skills, using standardized intelligence tests, Carrow (1957) found that monolingual students had higher scores than the bilingual group, and that bilingual youngsters would never be able to catch up socially or academically with those of the same age group, because of their basic language barriers. This may be especially true when comparing youngsters coming from low socio-economic groups with those who are from the upper socio-economic levels (Darcy, 1953).

Another occurance which may influence the bilingual student's development is the attitude that the peer group may have toward him when he speaks the dominant language incorrectly. The four- or five-year-old youngster quickly learns to distinguish skin color, facial features, and speech patterns. He may also learn that some groups are regarded by the vast majorities as inferior. Eventually, he may develop stereotyped opinions of different races, judging all members of a particular group favorably or unfavorably. Perhaps we may view these stereotype attitudes as learning prejudices from childhood on. But generally, the bilingual person may feel at home with his own group which may be favorably inclined toward him because of a similar cultural background (J.A. Fishman, 1955, and R. Zeligz, 1954). Speaking several languages, however, need not prove a barrier, but rather an advantage, where the person may easily fit into several social groups, his own as well as that which he encounters outside his immediate environment.

Finally, the degree of viewing differences among various groups depends also on the dominant peer group with whom a person may associate. If a non-English speaking pupil fails to conform to American customs, he is often looked upon as being different from the majority group. His speech pattern may particularly be the cause to make him feel inadequate among his peers (J.R. Davitz, 1955 and A. Gesel, 1956).

When a youngster mispronounces his words, quite often his peer group may ridicule him. This ridicule may increase his oral communication problems. His peer group may also reject him. Spanish-speaking bilingual children seem to have problems of social adjustments due to pronunciation barriers (G.G. Thompson, 1962). They often suffer from what might be considered a "normal" language learning progress if compared with their dominant peer group; and Thompson asks whether or not bilingualism is worth the resulting retardation in the common target language.

SECOND LANGUAGE CURRICULA

Careful consideration might be given to setting up second language learning curricula. This is particularly true when one considers that many students have not yet mastered their native tongue--English. Some educators feel that they ought to introduce second language programs in kindergarten or first grade, while others would like to see it postponed until the third or fourth grade levels. There are a number of educators who feel that junior high school age is the best time to introduce a second language (J.A. Fishman, 1955).

Because youngsters differ widely in their speech development, which may accelerate or retard their language learning abilities, a general rule may hardly be used. I think that some students are more mature and will definitely

be more readily prepared to learn a second language before others. However, as discussed in a previous chapter, since individualized instruction may be too costly for large groups of students, postponing second language instruction at least until third grade may prove feasible for the majority of American students.

There is a strong feeling among some educators that by the time youngsters reach junior high school age, learning a second language may help rather than hamper their social or academic adjustment. Also, youngsters coming from linguistically impoverished home environments may have a greater opportunity to use correct speech patterns, under a teacher's guidance, in school than out of school. The school teacher may actually help a student to learn two languages, his native tongue and his second language--English (Smoth, 1935).

Gifted pupils coming from intellectually superior home environments might benefit from starting to study a second language as early as the third grade, but rarely before. This, I think, is especially true if youngsters already know grammatical structures in their native tongue; learning a second language is likely to be easier (Smoth, 1935).

TWO KINDS OF LEARNING THEORIES

The principal method for becoming proficient in a second language is by finding some appropriate language

learning method suitable for the individual learner. But in order to measure some proficiency in language learning it might be useful to define learning. Robert Politzer and Charles Staubach (1965) define learning "as an observable change in a person's performance." Their main point is that learning involves an observable change in a person's behavior, and habit is an integral part of behavior which may be affected by stimuli and responses. The two authors explain further that educators classify learning in terms of (1) classical conditioning, and (2) instrumental learning. Classical conditioning will be discussed first and then instrumental learning next (Robert Politzer and Charles Staubach, 1965).

Classical conditioning involves an "associational shift," i.e., a conditioned response may be produced by means of an association even though the primary stimulus may be absent. For example, the sentence, "I am reading a book," is presented on a flash card. After the learner has seen the sentence several times, he has learned to respond to the sentence even though he does not see it again. In other words, the learner has been conditioned to respond without the presence of the original stimulus (Politzer and Staubach, 1965).

The learner's stimulus in language learning may be an abstract symbol. Usually, symbols represent real objects by means of abstractions. Symbols are nothing more than

abstractions which serve as a convention for linguistic usage. Example: the term ball represents the physical inanimate object with which children may play. The majority of language students regard symbolic abstractions as the primary linguistic components (Politzer and Staubach, 1965).

Politzer and Staubach believe that language students cannot utilize the associational shift as a learning method easily because language learning is a relatively complex procedure. This occurs because the language learner has to react to a new stimuli and responses with which he may often be totally unfamiliar, e.g., new grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and symbols (Politzer and Staubach, 1965).

If we should assume that a student already knows his native tongue relatively well, then mother tongue transfer needs to be considered. In this case, the learner may attempt to acquire second language concepts with reference to his native tongue, i.e., from the familiar to the unfamiliar (Politzer and Staubach, 1965).

Instrumental learning, however, involves stimulus, association, response, reward, and satisfaction that the learner may gain as a result of performance. Reinforcement is also integral to instrumental learning. Effective language learning results particularly through the continual reinforcement of correct responses. For example being able to speak in second language may be due to the results of the above mentioned reasons (Politzer and Staubach, 1965).

Positive transfer comes about as a result of the learner's familiarity with his mother tongue. A knowledge of many grammatical structures and a large vocabulary enables the learner to begin his second language learning from an advanced level rather than from an elementary standpoint. Based on my own observations, cognates (terms which have the same meanings in one or more languages) are particularly helpful in second language learning.

The key person who is able to help the learner to control linguistic stimuli and responses, which he may compare with his native tongue, is the language instructor (Politzer and Staubach, 1965). The instructor is particularly able to check a student's accuracy or his usage of structural patterns, which tend to help him to distinguish analogical differences and similarities. The instructor may also be able to teach students to check their systematic learning steps for maximum accuracy and efficiency. For example, "compré el libro" could be replaced by "lo compré," for grammatical accuracy in a given text (Politzer and Staubach, 1965).

Ultimately, however, a student's linguistic abilities help him to learn a second language by means of understanding grammatical relationships and by acquiring a large vocabulary. The more intelligent the student the greater potential he has for controlling linguistic patterns. This is the main reason for the gifted student's ability to speak early

in childhood, while those of average intelligence or a less favorable intellectual environment may have their speech patterns delayed until adolescence.

HOW NOT TO HAMPER LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE

Another significant point of view concerning learning a second language is discussed by Leonard Newmark (1965). He regards learning a second language in terms of the learner's need to fight off old habits in order to make room for new ones. This theory is often suggested by an applied linguist. The applied linguist is usually able to analyze a learner's contrastive, structural drills of the second language, then he may compare these drills with the learner's native tongue for the purpose of facilitating the fighting off incorrect language learning habits (Newmark, Leonard, 1965).

Newmark points out interestingly that is a non-English learner were to learn English with each linguistic component treated as a separate unit (each phonological rule, semantic value, and stylistic nuance), a child might grow old before he could ever learn the second language, while an older person could conceivably die in the process (Mewmark,1965).

Textbook programmers have a difficult learning responsibility in deciding what structural units to include in each chapter. At best, states Newmark, textbook learning emphasizes the sum total of many structural learning combinations. Newmark is correct in suggesting that textbook patterns or drills do not suffice adequately in effective second language learning because "natural environment" may

be the most rewarding learning experience. Students who live in a foreign country learn their second language in a relatively short period of time. They do not learn individual linguistic units but clusters of utterances and numerous linguistic sound combinations (Newmark, 1965).

An error frequently overlooked by psychologists and linguists is the importance of learning language units in context. Newmark points out that students are actually hampered by attempting to learn grammar or vocabulary, for instance, out of context, because they have to learn new concepts by means of old stimuli. Just learning mere utterances out of context seems to be a useless task. The perceptive instructor is able to teach students to <u>create</u> new utterances in context for successful usage of a second language learning (Newmark, 1965).

Newmark regards classroom learning as a mere aid in stimulating the learning of a second language outside of the classroom. The classroom instructor is therefore the key person who is able to determine what linguistic material to emphasize or deemphasize in order that students may gain a maximum degree from a language learning process. From my own observations which tend to confirm this, slow learners need more time to learn vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation while fast learners are bored with a slow learning process (Newmark, 1965).

A FEW MISCONCEPTIONS REGARDING SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

William R. Parker, while working for the United States National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State, noted that many Americans have three basic misconceptions regarding second language learning:

Their first misconception stems from the idea that Americans lack the know-how to learn a second language as easily as people of other countries do. Parker believes that such erroneous thinking does not even deserve comment. For example, the Army's intensive language courses during World War II proved that many Americans learned a second language effectively and efficiently. Parker explains that this kind of thinking is a mere reationalization for those not wanting to learn a second language in the first place (Parker, 1954).

Parker also points out that few Americans bothered to inquire about the percentages of foreigners who learned English, or how many years they devoted to such a study. However, the same Americans quickly concluded that they simply lacked linguistic learning ability. I believe that this attitude is perhaps their major stumbling block to learning a second language with a certain degree of accuracy (Parker,1954).

The next major misconcpetion which still exists in the States regarding learning a second language is that there is some "super method" which will enable all people to learn a second language within a few months. Using the

"miracle drug formula" seems to be the answer that many Americans would like to see.(Parker, 1954) .

This type of mistaken thinking comes primarily from the influence of newspaper advertisements that promote quick and easy learning promises. For example, a bilingual institute advertisement that promoted quick and easy learning promises read as follows: "This school gives you a 2-year bilingual secretarial course--Spanish and English--in six months. Previous knowledge of Spanish is unnecessary..... Results guaranteed for the average student. We give a three-year Spanish course in 40 hours." I have heard many similar promotions on the radio regarding second language learning as the reader probably has. (Parker, 1954).

Parker further explains that Berlitz beats all other promotional advertizers as far as language learning salesmanship is concerned. "You have already learned one language the Berlitz way." Rarely, however, do we get a true picture from such salesmanship. For the number of lessons or hours that it took to learn English in elementary school, secondary school, and college is included as significant proof of linguistic proficiency. The main reason why Berlitz sometimes produces good language results is because of their 76 years of experience, during which time they may have had a certain degree of success and failure. I believe that there is no particular "miracle" method which may be regarded as effective in the majority of second language

learning and teaching instances, both in public or private schools. (Parker, 1954).

How does the general American public see second language learning? When, for instance, may we consider that a person has learned his mother tongue? For the ability to converse in conversation may hardly be considered as having learned even the native tongue or native-like tongue. The subtleties of a native or of a second language are a time consuming procedure. This leaves little possibility for shortcuts as far as effectiveness is concerned. Parker feels that the main reason for our desire to obtain quick learning returns is because of unclear objectives regarding second language results in our schools and colleges. In the past, states Parker, our major objectives were to instruct in the second language by means of the traditional grammar translation methods, and students could hardly converse when residing in a foreign country. (Parker, 1954).

Another misconception regarding second language instruction is that all traditional teaching methods should be discarded and only the Army method implemented. This could not always work effectively because not all instructors are able to motivate the majority of students to learn successfully, especially in many states where language learning standards are low. (Parker, 1954).

Two years of second language study is, for the most part, not enough for effective second language learning.

However, some unusually intelligent students have learned a second language with great facility and at as rapid a learning rate as natives might learn to speak their mother tongue. One American student, for instance, who studied Spanish in Latin America, could lecture in that language after only two months (William R.W. Parker, 1954). I might add that these cases are indeed rare.

Parker points out that there are poor instructors in every field, and second language instruction is no exception to this rule. The number of second language teachers who may be poorly prepared in their profession is probably as large as any other group of instructors because of very low standards that exist in many states. (Parker, 1954).

However language learning affinity has to be considered as significant variables. Some language tests, though their validity may be debated, do, however, point out that some people learn languages faster than others, while other people develop mental blocks against any language learning. However, I think that poor teaching techniques or curricula may hardly be used as the excuse for students' inability to learn a second language effectively and efficiently.

Even fast learners cannot all be grouped uniquely, mainly because some students learn conversational skills faster than others, while others learn literature faster, or writing. The rapid learners possess the innate ability

to discriminate linguistic sounds distinctly and to comprehend grammatical relationships easily. This ability sometimes diminishes with adolescence and past adolescence, where students view the learning of basic linguistic skills as a childish procedure. (See observation No. 3, verb usage). In other words, adolescent attitudes when formed may be a significant element in language learning.(Parker, 1954).

Young children often learn a second language without a resentment of having to start as beginners. Moreover, if they have a linguistic aptitude, they do not need careful motivation as older students often do. However, linguistic aptitudes may be regarded as irrelevant to second language learning, especially, if poor teaching methods or curricula are used as evidence that students did not learn their second language effectively. Findings in the field of linguistic aptitude, based on scientific tests, should prove particularly helpful to language learners.(Parker, 1954).

WHAT IS THE RELEVANCE OF LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE?

Parker feels that many unthinking people really fail to see the relevance for learning a second language. They tend to reationalize by saying, "I will forget it anyway, why learn it?" Parker admits that he forgot much of what he had learned in different foreign languages and he spoke a number of them. However, this is no reason to

believe that he forgot all of his linguistic knowledge. The implication that just because a skill is partially lost through forgetting, it should not be learned in the first place, is contrary to the ideas of education. Any skill which is not used may be lost or forgotten partially. But just because we tend to forget some of our knowledge is no reason not to want to learn it initially. Language learning is probably no different from other knowledge. Parker believes that children benefit from early language learning, especially the highly motivated and intelligent. Besides, refresher courses might prove useful, especially if pursued at a later age.(Parker, 1954).

The question of how much a student learned before he forgot becomes clearer to us if we ask: How much has the student learned in the first place? As discussed previously, I think that a two-year second language learning program is indeed insufficient for linguistic proficiency, particularly two years of high school second language study. Even two-year college language study is often inadequate for an average group of students, much less two years of high school second language study.(Parker, 1954).

When using the Army Language School for a comparative purpose, we find that effective second language learning results are due primarily to students' intelligence, motivation, excellent equipment, and practice which is fourfold

when compared to many public schools in the United States (Parker, 1954).

However, the main point which Parker conveys is that second language learning begins at an early age in many European countries, and more students are enrolled in language courses than in the States. This may be due to the greater need to communicate with neighboring countries because of their close proximity (Parker, 1954).

As far as teaching methods are concerned, European methods vary from the grammar translation to the oral-aural with few mechanical devices which are often too costly or unfeasible for the average European secondary school. In order of increasing priority are understanding, speaking, reading and writing (Parker, 1954).

Many American high schools, however, still have no modern language program. And many American colleges require no second language, as part of their curricula. But even the high schools that offer second language instruction as college preparation offer it in many instances beginning with 9th, 10th, or 11th grades. In the United States the total high school population studying a second language equals 14 percent (Parker, 1954).

In most of Europe second language learning is a serious concern. In August, 1953, United States delegates met with second language instructors from 18 nations in Ceylon, for a UNESCO seminar. Each representative spoke at

least one second language; and each of the nations represented, except for the United States, required that all secondary school students learn a second language for no less than a seven-year study period (Parker, 1954).

The American delegate to the Ceylon seminar agreed that America was not in tune with the rest of the world, as far as second language learning is concerned. The teacher program abroad emphasized speaking fluency as the most significant skill, whereas in the States oral skill is, in most instances not required. As the following graph summary of second language learning effectiveness in thirty-five countries substantiates this Parker's assertion.(Parker, 1954).

The summary shows that the starting age for beginners varies from seven to fourteen, in most public schools of these thirty-five countries. The majority of the thirty-five countries have a compulsory second language program, whereas in the United States second language study is merely an elective. However, there is a definite relationship between the starting age of a second language study and its effectiveness. The older the adolescent, the more effective is his second language learning (Parker, 1954).

Unusual as the truth may seem, the United States ranks thirty-fourth on the list of the thirty-five countries, in continuity of second language instruction. Argentina ranks thirty-fifth on the list, and the program lasts

for three years. In the United States, however, second language study is based primarily on a four-year elective program (Parker, 1954), in many American public schools.

THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER

Clay B. Christensen and Robert Shawl see each class of students in terms of possessing varying language learning needs. The authors claim that each group of students must therefore be provided with particular objectives in order to meet their needs. The instructor has to determine what these needs are. If a fourth-year second language group of students cannot speak the language by the end of the fourth year, then oral language practice should be implemented. This may be attained by means of dialogue, grammar, literature, geography or history of the language. Whatever teaching aspect is presented, it has to be by means of a step-by-step approach. In order that students might learn their second language, the instructor should show students how to freely mutate language units, for example, "give me this book," "give me the book which you have in your hand," or simply, "give it to me now!" (Clay B. Christensen and Robert Shawl,1968).

Christensen and Shawl state further that conversational Spanish or English lends itself to reduced grammatical structures, forms "deletion" or their "expansion," as discussed in the above examples. The authors point out that native speakers often know intuitively how to reduce

or expand language structural components (Christensen and Shawl, 1968).

But beginning second language students may have difficulty in converting reduced syntactical elements into parallel expanded forms, because they are unfamiliar with the language. However, the effective instructor finds devices and procedures to teach students grammatical structures; and he often knows how to use visual aids for conceptualizing linguistic items (Christensen and Shawl, 1968).

SECOND LANGUAGE WORD MEANING

Another significant aspect of linguistic methodology pertains differentiating word meanings which are culturally determined. Robert Lado (1957) explains that the term "house" may be defined as a dwelling in most American urban centers. However, I believe that on the outskirts of Santiago, Chile, a straw hut is often referred to as a human dwelling (Robert Lado, 1957).

Lado states further that the instructor should be aware of the differences in word meaning which vary according to each cultural group even within the same country, city, or residential neighborhood. The term "la siesta" is peculiar to Spanish-speaking countries. Non-Spanish-countries have no terms with exact meanings when translated. In the English language, "to pull someone's leg" cannot be translated literally into the Spanish language, because this idiomatic expression is peculiar to the English language (Lado, 1957).

Lado points out that word meanings can be classified according to lexical interpretation. For instance, in English, "books," "caps," and "mats" are plurals merely by the addition of "s," but in Chinese numbers, the numbers two, three, or four must be added in front of words in order to identify the plural of objects.(Lado, 1957).

Generally speaking, work meanings pertain to the gist of ideas, which the speaker wants to convey, in each particular language. Spanish-speaking people may name a boy Jesus as a reverence for Christ, whereas English-speaking people may find the name Jesus irreverent, when naming a youngster.(Lado, 1957).

Some Spanish meanings are especially difficult to translate into English. For example, "el primer piso," when translated equals the second floor and not the first as it might appear. "I am missing a book," can be translated as "me falta un libro," which bears a slight translation difference. Idiomatic expressions like those discussed present particular translation problems which the instructor needs to be aware of, when teaching non-natives in a second language.(Lado, 1957).

As mentioned before, some cognates have definite English and Spanish similarities, which are useful for helping students and for motivating them to continue with second language learning. However, false cognates present particular linguistic problems. They should be clearly

identified. "La professora," for example, may mean a high school or a college instructor. There seems to be little variance between the two as far as translation is concerned, but there is great difference in meaning in the English translation. (Lado, 1957).

Regarding who has learned a second language fluently, Lado believes that the learner who has mastered oral fluency will have little trouble learning to read and to write in the second language. Lado's assertion seems to conform with my own teaching experience and observations. (Lado, 1957).

But in order to accelerate the language learning processes and to aid the learner in becoming proficient in oral or written communication skills, John B. Carroll (1966) proposes the use of programmed self-instruction. His proposal is based primarily on three main ideas:

1. The learner's terminal behavior. (The purpose for wanting to learn a second language).
2. Step sequencing with each step considered a learning task that is presented and responded to in a testable manner before proceeding to a subsequent step.
3. At each step, the learner may check his responses for accuracy with the programmed instructional material. (John B. Carroll, 1957).

Concerning who may succeed in learning a second language, Sol Saporta (1966) believes that students must

possess three main abilities to become fluent in second language,

1. The ability to distinguish grammatical form non-grammatical sentences.
2. The ability to understand grammatical utterances.
3. The ability to distinguish between ambiguous and non-ambiguous sentences, and to understand relationships between them. (Sol Saporta, 1966).

The learner, states Saporta, must have an innate ability to see sentences in terms of representing degrees of abstraction; he must also see sentences as completed formal language from which units other sentences may be derived. Example: the kernel sentence, I am running: and the expanded form, I am running very rapigly. (Saporta, 1966).

Christensen and Shawl (1968) claim that instructors should show their students existing grammatical relationships as well as audio-lingual material which is closely related to each other for successful language learning enhancement. But grammatical points which change meanings should also be emphasized. For example, "me gusta la corbata" and "me quita la corbata." (Christensen and Shawl, 1968).

HOW VALID ARE THE TESTS?

One of the most crucial problems in identifying linguistically superior students from among the disadvantaged

group is finding valid tests. The Institute of Psychological Research of Teacher's College, Columbia University undertook an experiment by teaching English to migrant Puerto Rican and Spanish-speaking students. The prime objective was to find linguistic differences in outcomes by the use of contrasting measures among individual students in the experimental group. The Puerto Rican pupils were allowed to stay in a separate group until they knew enough English to adjust to their school environment. The other procedure was to send junior high school age Puerto Rican students directly into regular English-speaking classes (Irving Lorge and Frank Mayans, 1954).

The youngsters who came into regular junior high school classes had a greater opportunity to master English than the Puerto Rican group. They were also better able to learn actual subject matter than the former group (Lorge and Mayans, 1954).

Because of apparent retardation among bilingual students the researchers administered an English and Spanish intelligence test to the group. But because of language barriers neither one of the test results could be used with accuracy (Lorge and Mayans, 1954).

On subsequent trials I added numbers to their familiar vocabulary and colors. Thus the beginning Spanish tenth and eleventh graders made up original phrases, such as

one red book, un libro rojo, or seis sillas amarillas, six yellow chairs. The students enjoyed the oral responses of this practice very much. Taking them away from a regular routine of memorizing dialogues gave them a break from monotone language learning practices which are often inevitable in attempting to learn a foreign language.

From this observation and several subsequent follow-ups, I saw that even the underachieving student felt that learning a language was fun, rather than a chore. Also, students often volunteered the responses without prodding or coaxing, which is truly the desirable learning method appreciated by an instructor.

As a result of my teaching in a number of San Diego City Schools, a representative number of observations have been devised and are included in this research. The following summary of conclusions is based on these observations which pertain to effective oral language learning approachs:

1) Organizing learning material suitable for the particular needs of the group of students.
2) Demonstrating goals for purposeful learning.
3) Instructing unfamiliar and familiar vocabulary in context.
4) Reinforcing vocabulary through frequent reviews.
5) Using unfamiliar terms sparingly.
6) Transforming simple sentences into complex constructions by means of modifiers, negative and interrogative sentence constituents.
7) Including grammatical elements in sentences or in brief dialogues.
8) Comparing familiar (cognates) terms with unfamiliar vocabulary.
9) Maximizing complementary adjectives with which students may like to identify.
10) Writing brief compositions letting students help each other.

11) Testing of vocabulary orally in brief conversations.

12) Stimulating conversations through dialogues, humor, or questions and answers.

13) Teaching idiomatic expressions in replies to instructor posed questions in order to check pronunciation

14) Identifying verb forms orally for motivation.

15) Stimulating class project writing as a joint endeavor for motivational purpose.

OBSERVATION NO. 1

Grades 7-9 Beginning ESL

Eighteen Mexican students who speak Spanish but who were beginners in ESL were tested in present tense and infinitive verbs used in a controlled composition. Some of the verbs in the composition were: "is," "likes," "works," "to speak," "to read," "to write," "cares for," "cooks," "cleans," "shops." After 5-10 minute practice sessions, the students filled in the verb forms presented by the instructor. The errors ranged from 1-9 among the group. This observation and several other oral quizzes indicate that the group of students whose ages varied from 12-15, and who had from 6-12 months of English as a second language instruction had significant difficulty with present tense verbs and infinitives.

OBSERVATION NO. 2

Grades 7-9 Beginning ESL

The same group of students discussed previously were involved in the second experimental study in which seventeen simple English words were presented. Having

shown the students a cue for each word, helped the group to identify the English terms orally. For example, a flash card was presented with a word and on the back of it a first letter cue was given. The students looked at a number of words and their respective cues. After about 25 minutes of practice, the students had memorized the words and the majority of the students constructed original sentences with the vocabulary which they had learned. Only three students from the group had difficulty with constructing the sentences correctly.

From this lesson plan I concluded that if language learning material is presented logically, followed by reinforcement, learning results are considerably improved.

OBSERVATION NO. 3.

Grades 7-9 Beginning ESL

The same group of students repeated sentences which the instructor presented using facial gestures, a mimicry method. Negative and positive sentence construction were used. For example: I fly to New York. No. I don't fly to New York.

However, when the students were required to use original sentences they had great difficulty in under-

standing these sentences. Apparently they could not understand English. They requested interpretation of the sentences so that they could understand how to make their own.

Another barrier was the pronunciation of "th," "rd," and "s" in the plural sentence construction presented to the group of beginning ESL. (See page 8 of this research).

OBSERVATION NO. 4

Spanish Intermediate

The group of eighth grade Junior High School students visited a group of Junior High School Mexican students who were in grades seven to nine, and in the beginning ESL class.

The visiting group of intermediate Spanish students, numbering about twenty-five students, conversed on a variety of subjects in Spanish, guided by their instructor, who drove them to the visiting school, along with several parents. The instructor stated that her students practiced Spanish in a language lab especially designed for foreign language students' convenience.

From this observation and several subsequent ones in other schools, I concluded that an effective teacher generally finds resources and ways to involve her students in active practicing conversational Spanish as frequently as possible.

OBSERVATION NO. 5

Spanish Intermediate

I visited a group of eight grade students at a San Diego City School. The students participated in the readings from Entender y Hablar, the text used in San Diego City Schools. They studied unit ten. When guided by the instructor, the students responded to questions from unit ten, in an authoratative institutional setting.

The majority of the students in the advanced Spanish class spoke Spanish relatively well, considering that they had less than a year experience with the Spanish language. The girls seemed particularly adept at conversational skills.

A conclusion may be drawn that unauthoritative teachers do not need to control their students in order for them to learn, but rather to guide them in their learning task. Generally using the positive approach,

showing students what to do, rather than what not to do, the corrective, rather than the punitive approach, which is, in my opinion, the superior teaching method.

OBSERVATION NO. 6

Beginning Spanish

The beginning group of Spanish adult students were presented with a basic introductory set of sentences, for example: Me Llamo Alberto, My name is Albert: Cómo se Llama Ud? What is your name?

After an hour of practice with similar sentence structures, the majority of students could easily reply to similar interrogative and negative sentence structures. Active class participation is essentail as an effective teaching method for adult learners.

Memorization of dialogues does not seem particularly advisable for adult students, because dialogue material is not particularly helpful when adult students attempt to use the same dialogue vocabulary in a different context than in what they have learned previously in the book.

OBSERVATION NO. 7

Beginning Spanish, Grade 10 and 11

The beginning group of Spanish students were presented with flash cards describing colors. The names were presented orally only. The novelty of the flash cards helped the students to learn the colors with only one trial presentation. So effective was this method, that on a subsequent day, adding familiar objects which students have learned from the teacher, using items in the classroom such as a book, a notebook etc., could be combined with the colors on the flash cards. Thus el libro, the book, was responded to, or translated to, the green book, el libro verde, or the red dictionary, el diccionario rojo.

On subsequent trials, numbers and colors were added to their familiar vocabulary. Thus the beginning Spanish tenth and eleventh graders made up original phrases, such as one red book, un libro rojo, or seis sillas amarillas, six yellow chairs. The students enjoyed the oral responses of this practice very much. Taking them away from a regular routine of memorizing dialogues gave them a break from monotonous language learning practices

which are often inevitable in attempting to learn a second language.

From this observation and several subsequent followups, it was evident that even the underachieving student felt that learning a language was fun, rather than a chore. Also, students often volunteered the responses without prodding or coaxing, which is truly the desirable learning method appreciated by an instructor.

OBSERVATION NO. 8

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The group of students who were beginners were presented with basic colors such as yellow, amarrillo; orange, anaranjado, etc. When explained that each color corresponds to its name on the reverse side of the flash card students internalized this type of learning procedure. The group of students memorized the names of the colors and knew the answers when tested on the same day.

On the same first-day presentation, students learned a number of masculine and feminine nouns, the names of the days of the week, and the names of the months. The entire lesson took less than 30 minutes with the

remainder of time spent on matters related to the course-work but not specifically to the first-day learning procedure.

From this observation a conclusion is drawn that organized and purposeful learning is essential for successful outcomes. Active participatory language learning is especially helpful for the adult student.

The conclusion is that adult students learn a language not merely by means of memorization of vocabulary, but through reinforcement of terms actively working with them, in sentences or phrases, continually, without letting students forget them.

OBSERVATION NO. 9

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The same group of adult students discussed in observation No. 8 studied in addition to the review of the names of the days of the week, the names of the months and numbers to 100. The group of students used the above-mentioned linguistic components in sentences. The majority of students could easily construct sentences by merely adding the corresponding verbs es or está, to be, to their familiar vocabulary.

The conclusion is that sequential learning material arranged into small learning units with the addition of only one or two items is sufficient for rapid language learning. This method stresses the initial learning activity followed by continual reinforcement of familiar vocabulary.

OBSERVATION NO. 10

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The group of students discussed in observation Nos. 8 and 9 were presented with additional language units from Spanish Made Simple, Jackson and Rubio, 1955, the text for the course. These units consisted of Cuánto cuesta? Cuánto es? How much is it? Deseo or Quiero, I want or I wish; and Donde está? Where is it? Constructing interrogative sentences was especially facilitated by means of adding familiar nouns and adjectives. For example: Cuánto es el libro anaranjado? How much is the orange book? Cuántos libros quiero? How many books do I want? Dónde está el lapiz blanco? Where is the white pencil?

The conclusion is that interchanging language units or constituents in sentences makes constructing them easy. This process requires a mere conversion of

positive statement type of sentences into their respective interrogative forms. For example: Quiero ir al mercado, I want to go to the market, becomes Quiero ir al mercado? Do I want to go to the market? The adult student indicates a particular fondness of manipulating familiar sentence constituents into expended conversational usages.

OBSERVATION NO. 11

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The group of students were presented with masculine and feminine definite and indefinite articles: él, he; ella, she; un and una, a. The articles were used in singular or plural form. The students were presented with usage of hay which signifies there is or there are. The majority of students could use easily the definite and indefinite masculine and feminine articles after the first or the second trial.

The conclusion is that using indefinite and definite articles in sentences makes learning them interesting and easy. Also, the vocabulary which the students have used on previous occasions is thus continually being reinforced. If at first the students were unfamiliar with the

usage of es or está, is, they knew how to use the term hay, there is or there are which is its equivalent.

OBSERVATION NO. 12

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The groups of students were explained the difference between proque, because, and por qué, why. The infinitives hablar, to speak; oir, to hear; and leer, to read, were also introduced. These verbs are examples of the three types of verb form endings that are part of the Spanish language structure. All the above sentence items were presented in full sentences. Students enjoyed using the definite and indefinite articles along with new sentence constructions not used previously along with their extensive vocabulary. The key to their language learning success stemmed from the use of cognates. For instance, Deseo leer el mapa porque quiero viajar. I want to read the map, because I want to travel.

From the above teaching technique a conclusion is drawn that students, especially on the adult level, enjoy learning and relearning the familiar with the unfamiliar. The dichotomy falls into a general rule where

learning a second language is arranged in a way that students are able to increase their ever-expanding vocabulary, with a limited number of linguistic items added to their existing terms.

OBSERVATION NO. 13

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The students discussed in previous observations were presented with an explanation to help them distinguish between porque, because, and por qué, why. On the same day, the students learned the usage of the personal a with the masculine definite article which becomes a plus el, a contraction form "to" "the," and the a and la which does not change in structure or meaning, in the feminine singular form.

The technique which resulted in successful language learning is through reinforcement of cognates along with the above mentioned learning units. For example: Yo deseo visitar a la alumna or al alumno porque es muy inteligente. I want to visit the student because he or she is very intelligent.

The conclusion is that students like to feel that they are continually progressing in the language learning

process at a "normal" rate of progression, and that they are able to converse with one another even with a relatively limited knowledge of terms.

Another positive approach to this language teaching method is the usage of complementary terms with which students like to identify or aspire to find approval from the instructor.

The usage of muy inteligente or muy diligente, "very intelligent" and "very diligent," respectively, is especially helpful in teaching a foreign language. The beginning level students should have included or should be taught many such complementary terms for student confidence.

OBSERVATION NO. 14

Beginning Conversational Spanish

For the first time during this instruction series, the group of students wrote jointly a brief composition, entitled Vamos a hacer un viaje a Tijuana el fin de la Semana Próxima. We are going to take a trip to Tijuana next weekend. The method of instruction was to supply the students with a topic of interest and let each write what

he or she could in a short composition. First, each student wrote on scratch paper, and then each continued on one paper which a student had previously started.

The conclusion was encouraging. Though the students had only a very minimum of language learning experience, they wrote a very good composition. Students made a few errors which only indicated that they wrote this type of an exercise for the first time. But it showed congruent thinking and progress in their learning.

OBSERVATION NO. 15

Beginning Converstional Spanish

The group of students were tested on sixty commonly used Spanish nouns and verbs. The testing procedure was to supply the students with a list of terms and let them translate into English. The entire group of students had no difficulty in translating the vocabulary.

The next procedure was oral testing of about one hundred adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. The oral examination was especially successful because students needed a change of activity in order to learn the Spanish language efficiently.

The conclusion is that students enjoyed this form of oral testing and progressing at a faster rate than usual.

OBSERVATION NO. 16

Beginning Conversational Spanish

Today the class practiced aloud the brief dialogues from the text Spanish Made Simple. The students faced each other and asked each other questions from the text. Their partners replied to the posed questions. The instructor's interjection of humorous remarks helped to stimulate interest in learning oral skills. The replies were always in complete sentences. The main reason for this procedure is to help students practice the vocabulary that they know as much as possible. The vocabulary was rather simple, but the kind that students had for the most part used or could use in real life situations.

From this method of instruction we see that students learn conversational Spanish also by means of active dialogue through discussion, questions and answers, humorous anecdotes stimulated by the instructor.

OBSERVATION NO. 17

Beginning Conversational Spanish

The group of students read the assignment from the text that was based on a sophisticated group of idiomatic

terms in the Spanish language, their assignment was about Senor Adams, the Spanish student, and his teacher, Señor Lopez. The method of instruction was based primarily on stimulating conversational skills by means of questions and answers. The procedure worked well, especially since the students easily related to the subject matter. For example: Mi papa está enfermo y no puede salir de su dormitorio. My father is ill and cannot leave his bed. Está en cama porque tiene un fuerte resfriado. He is in bed because he has a severe cold.

A conclusion may be drawn that using the question and answer teaching technique stimulates discussion which is helpful as a method for conversational skills. At the same time, the instructor can check the pronunciation when students are conversing orally with one another.

OBSERVATION NO. 18

Beginning Conversational Spanish

Today's lesson consisted of translating the Second Review from the text, Spanish Made Simple. Students volunteered to translate paragraphs on an individual basis. The next procedure was to have students identify the various verb forms, for example, the infinitives estudiar, to

study, leer, to read; and escribir, to write. The students also identified singular and plural verb forms. This procedure was especially useful, I felt, because, for the most part, many students had little grammatical training prior to this course with the exception of one or two students. Most of the learning took place orally with an intent to have each student check his accuracy from his classmates.

A conclusion may be drawn that oral verb form testing is just as effective as in written form; besides, it serves as a motivating teaching procedure for the remainder of the students to want to learn conversational skills.

SUMMARY FROM A NATIONAL SURVEY

Basic to successful language learning is a knowledge from researchers' findings in the field of linguistics. If administrators and instructors are interested in improving modern language learning to a great extent finding clues to what constitutes pertinent steps for successful learning outcomes should be especially useful.

Thus, the following summary includes basic research pertaining to the improvement of language learning. The ratings herein are derived from a nineteen member nationally nominated panel of judges. The percentages are rounded off to the nearest number. Thirty-six questions derived from this survey are the most fundamental for the researchers interested in language learning. For the purpose of brevity the highest percentages of each response are included in this summary.

1. Sixty-five percent of the panelists responding to the questions stated that when instructing a foreign language, English should be used none of the time.

2. Thirty-nine percent of the panelists stated that in order for students to be able to apply grammatical lessons from textbooks, English should be used, especially if language learning is to be facilitated.

3. Seventy-seven percent of the same panelists believed that in order for students to be able to apply correct linguistic items, grammatical speech patterns should be applied.

4. Forty-six percent of the total number of panelists stated that transformational grammar and contrastive linguistic items should be used for effective foreign language teaching during the next ten years.

5. Thirty-two percent of them agreed that there should be no translation in an introductory foreign language course.

6. Thirty-seven percent of the panelists agreed that students needed four years of foreign language instruction for optimal linguistic control, and the same percentage, thirty-seven percent, felt that six years would be the optimal number of years. However, the exact definition of linguistic control was not precisely spelled out.

7. Thirty-nine percent of the panelists felt that the minimum number of years necessary to study a foreign language was four years, in order for students to grasp some essential linguistic principles.

8. Twenty-nine percent of the panelists stated that children should begin to study a foreign language at the age of six.

9. Ninety-five percent of the panelists agreed that a person who has learned listening and speaking skills only, will need to have reading skills taught him directly.

10. Eighty-four percent of the panelists agreed that reading skills should be introduced after listening skills.

11. Fifty-nine pecent of the panelists agreed that reading skills should be introduced as soon as possible.

12. Fifty-three percent of the panelists agreed that the order of importance should be listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

13. Ninety-four percent of the panelists agreed that cultural content should be taught for arousing curiosity.

14. Sixty-three percent of the panelists agreed that cultural content should be taught by:

a. selected readings

b. teachers' personal anecdotes

c. films and slides

15. Seventy-four percent of the same group of panelists stated that vocabulary should be taught in context.

"By ad hoc"cultural notes and slides or films at the beginning level, and by means of selected readings at the intermediate level, and at the advanced level. Introductory reading may be presented even at the elementary level.

16. Ninety-four percent of the panelists stated that recent or previous language study at the high-school level had a definite positive effect on college success in the language study.

17. Eighty-eight percent of panelists believed that having had training in one language helped students to learn another.

18. The highest value ranking given by students in regard to language competancies which they hoped to attain was cultural knowledge.

19. When ranking the value that most foreign language teachers like to see high school students know about a foreign language, they replied cultural knowledge.

20. Of the group of panelists who replied they believed that the use of dictation in the classroom helped students to become proficient in any language learning aspect other than in the ability to take dictation. The following quotes were included by the panelists as substantiated proof of the type of helpful methods best useful for effective language learning results:

> "It helps students learn concord and agreement."
>
> "Attentive listening; correct writing."
>
> "Listening comprehension, structural awareness, spelling."
>
> "Aural-oral skills."
>
> "I suppose it helps with spelling and relating or associating sounds and words for reading and writing."

"It tests discriminatory powers needed in foreign-language learning, especially in the case of listening comprehension."

"If we learn to write by writing, this is one way to practice writing."

"Understanding, reading, writing, spelling."

"Listening and writing. The question is, however, does dictation develop these skills more effectively than other activities?"

"Spelling, grammar, comprehension."

21. Sixty percent of the panelists stated that teachers should use phonetic description and sound limitations. They also believed that speech articulation should be demonstrated with facial or other physiological descriptions.

22. Ninety-three percent of the panelists stated that foreign language departments and education departments should cooperatively work together for optimum linguistic proficiency results.

23. They also stressed cultural knowledge as the most significant reason for studying a foreign language in the United States.

24. Fifty-six percent of the panelists stated that an informal seating arrangement is most beneficial for a class size of thirty or fewer students.

25. Forty-seven percent of the same group of panelists agreed that from a pedagogical standpoint, the most desirable class size for beginning and intermediate students should be from eleven to fifteen, for optimal learning outcomes.

26. Sixty-one percent of the same group of panelists stated that realistically speaking, present day high schools can expect to maintain between twenty-one and twenty-five students in beginning language classes.

27. Thirty-nine percent of the panelists stated that at the college level, from twenty-one to twenty-five students can be reasonably expected to be maintained at the beginning and intermediate levels.

28. Sixty-one percent of the panelists agreed that the language laboratory is useful as an additional teaching aid.

29. Eighty-nine percent of the panelists stated that teaching machines and general programmed instruction is interesting and worth experimenting with.

30. Seventy-two percent of the panelists stated that they believed that students would benefit from regular rather than intensive foreign language study.

31. Sixty-seven percent of the panelists stated that the best <u>single</u> predictor for college success in a foreign language are good foreign language aptitude tests.

32. Eighty-four percent of the same group of panelists stated that using the audio-lingual teaching method "turned the classroom into a place where the foreign language is talked, rather than talked about" is most beneficial for optimum language learning success.

33. Forty-seven percent of the group interviewed suggested that poor learning results can be expected if students use parrot-like methods in foreign language learning. These students generally read only in their own book, but cannot meet new linguistic challenges.

34. The Appendix describes the most beneficial extra-curricular activities which involve students learning a foreign language.

Dr. Theodore Anderson (University of Texas - Austin, Texas0:

1. Summer travel abroad.
2. Language houses.
3. 'Foreign' room mates.
4. Foreign movies.
5. Foreign lectures.
6. Foreign-language tables.
7. Foreign-language reading lounge.

Miss Violet E. Bergquist (University of Illinois, Circle Campus - Chicago, Illinois):

1. Study or trip to country where language is spoken.
2. Student exchange.
3. Active club program - use native students or people from the area.
4. Movies of foreign country.
5. Develop foreign climate or atmosphere within the classroom.

Dr. Emma M. Birkmaier (University of Minnesota - Minneapolis, Minnesota):

1. Seeing many films.
2. Attending foreign-language camps.
3. American Field Service-type activities.
4. Exchange correspondence and tapes as a class.
5. Tutorial work of the upper classmen for the lower classmen.
6. Good one-act plays for PTA.
7. Exchanging programs with other schools.

Dr. Dwight L. Bolinger (Harvard University - Cambridge, Massachusetts):

Contacts with native speakers, on their home ground if possible.

Dr. Frederick D. Eddy (University of Colorado - Boulder, Colorado):

1. Language houses, tables, and plays - effectively run, integrated with the Department's program.
2. Equally - or more - effective is provision for and encouragement of <u>residence and study in the foreign country</u>.

Dr. Elton Hocking (Purdue University - Lafayette, Indiana):

1. Skits and dramatizations.
2. Fold songs, hit tunes - almost any foreign-language songs.
3. Foreign-language tables at meals.

Dr. Robert Lado (Georgetown University - Washington, D.C.):

1. Putting on a play within the capabilities of the class.
2. Learning songs in a language club and holding a contest of some kind.
3. Seeing good movies in the target language.
4. Hearing and seeing a travelogue with slides.
5. Having a reading club with interesting and worthwhile things to read and to discuss.

Dr. Yvone Lenard (University of California - Los Angeles, California):

Not extracurricular, but I am convinced that student involvement can only be achieved by an active, enthusiastic teacher, who understands his students' interests and gears the class to those interests, who uses the foreign language to speak of what his students know well (themselves, their lives, etc.) and especially makes them speak and write on those subjects. Seeing French plays, movies, etc. and presenting skits or plays in French is, of course, interesting and valuable also.

Dr. Fernand L. Marty (Hollins College - Hollins College, Virginia):

1. French clubs.
2. French house.
3. Radio broadcasts.
4. Records, films, plays.
5. French magazines and newspapers.

Dr. Gustave Mathieu (California State College - Fullerton, California):

1. Tape-Pals.
2. Production of short skits and plays.
3. Daily news bulletin in the foreign language produced by rotating student teams.
4. Planning for travel or study abroad.

Dr. Joseph I. Michel (University of Texas - Austin, Texas):

1. Foreign-language clubs.
2. Films.
3. Play presentation and the learning of songs.
4. The use of outside speakers from the country or who visit the country.
5. A visit to the country itself.
6. The use of radio and television where feasible.

Dr. William G. Moulton (Princeton University - Princeton, New Jersey):

1. Foreign language houses.
2. Summer work programs abroad.
3. Junior year abroad.

Dr. Howard L. Nostrand (University of Washington - Seattle, Washington):

Individualized, depending on personal interests and surrounding conditions: travel, reading, a college living group (e.g., Deutsche Haus), discussions with visitors from the countries where the language being studied is native. Anthologies and bibliographies of interesting reading are needed, covering fields of student interest.

Dr. Robert L. Politzer (Stanford University - Stanford, California):

Any kind of activity which motivates the student to learn the language arouses interest in the foreign culture and thus its language (language clubs, contact with representatives of the foreign culture, etc.).

Dr. Norman P. Sacks (University of Wisconsin-Madison, Wisconsin):

1. Language houses, tables, tertulias, etc.
2. Language clubs.
3. Informal get-togethers with native speakers of the foreign language.

Dr. Albert Valdman (Indiana University- Bloomington, Indiana):

(Dr. Valdman referred to an evaluative report which he had written entitled The Language Program of the Ferguson-Florissant Schools. The fourteen-page report contained no publication date, but did include material too long to include in this summary but pertinant to question #35.)

36. What specific suggestions do you have for improving modern foreign language instruction? Again, your comments are greatly appreciated.

Note: The suggestions given for question #36 are not broad ones, for similar reasons explained in the note to question #35. Hopefully, however, the suggested comments will be helpful to the researcher interested in language methodology. Furthermore, a 16 panel members--rather than a 19 panel are being quoted in the subsequent summary. All 19 respondents replied to question # 36; however, only 16 were willing to be quoted, and 3 refused.)

Dr. Theodore Anderson (University of Texas--Austin, Texas):

1. Educate public and especially professional educators and administrators to an understanding of foreign languages in U.S. education and life.
2. Earliest possible start in school when proper conditions are possible.
3. Longest possible sequences--K-12.
4. Use of native teachers who have been properly oriented.
5. Foreign student and teacher exchanges, study, and travel.
6. Much better teacher education programs, using MLA Guidelines.

Miss Violet E. Berquist (University of Illinois, Circle-Campus--Chicago, Illinois):

1. Start earlier--it seems to me that this is most urgent.
2. Improve the quality of the teaching at all levels.

3. Continue to work on programed or individualized instruction.
4. Ability grouping provides the necessary challenge for the able student; it also helps the less able.

Dr. Emma M. Birkmaier (University of Minnesota--Minneapolis, Minnesota):

1. A greater variety of activities.
2. Use of authentic cultural situations through films.
3. Get away from literature. Use good twentieth-century literature.
4. Orient materials to the desires and tastes of the age level the teacher works with.
5. Correlation with other classes.
6. Reorient the thinking of the foreign-language teacher and have him take an interest in what students do, and relate the foreign-language class to that.

Dr. Dwight L. Bolinger (Harvard University - Cambridge, Massachusetts):

1. A closer link between theory and practice.
2. A decommercialization of textbooks.
3. A well-funded experimental group with a free hand to try radical ideas.
4. A motivation for our students--some way to put them from the first in a genuine communicative situation with native speakers.

Dr. Frederick D. Eddy (University of Colorado - Boulder, Colorado):

> Sorry, I don't have six months to answer this question! I can only refer you to the professional literature and to such admirable state-wide foreign-language programs as the one in Indiana. Apparently others are shaping up well: Texas, Washington State, possibly more. . . .

Dr. Elton Hocking (Purdue University - Lafayette, Indiana):

1. Audio-visual (i.e., pictorial) materials, if truly integrated, add much to the learning of langauge as well as culture. We already have a few such integrated A-V courses (EBF, McGraw-Hill).

2. Better teacher preparation (Pre-service and in-service).
3. Better facilities for the teacher.
4. More time for the teacher.
5. More intelligent use of, and distributed time for, the language lab."

Dr. Robert Lado (Georgetown University - Washington, D.C.):

> We need controlled experiments--very specific ones rather than global ones--to know more about the great variety of ways to present material. The general labels, 'audio-lingual,' 'grammar-translation,' 'cognitive,' 'operant' etc., are woefully unspecific, and hopelessly ambiguous. I attempted more than 40 different ways to teach vocabulary and found significant differences among them although they could all be classified under 'audio-lingual' methods.

Dr. Yvone Lenard (University of California--Los Angeles, California):

> A good question! First, improve the attitude of some administrators. Let them recognize superior teachers and use those as their guides and advisors. Next, improve teacher training in universities (you know what improvement that implies). I would want each teacher to ask himself at any moment of his class: "What are my students learning from what we are doing now? What is the value of that? Is everybody involved and participating actively?"
>
> I would like to see teachers use their textbooks more critically, and instead of letting the book decide for the class, use it as a help, or adjust. (By critically, I do not mean that they should spend their time criticizing it.)

Dr. Ferdinand L. Marty (Hollinns College - Hollins College, Virginia):

> Cannon put in a small paragraph--is the topic for a whole book which we will publish in December, 1967.

Dr. Gustave Mathieu (California State College - Fulerton, California):

1. Material Certificate for Teachers as requirement based on type of MLA test.
2. Guarantee of study abroad to most good students in their senior-high school or junior college year if they qualify linguistically.
3. Required--"Orientation Sabbatical" every five years for foreign-language teachers.

Dr. Joseph I. Mitchel (University of Texas - Austin, Texas):

> The single suggestion for improving the teaching of modern foreign languages is the improvement of teachers. That is producing the individual who is thoroughly competent in the language he is teaching, in knowledge of the culture and the country he is teaching, and who is an effective teacher; that is, who knows the methods, techniques and procedures which will expedite learning and create an interest in the student.

Dr. William G. Moulton (Princeton University - Princeton, New Jersey):

> We need to work on the teaching of reading skills while at the same time maintaining audio-lingual abilities.

Dr. Howard L. Nostrand (University of Washington - Seattle, Washington):

> Add knowledge about to the 'experience of' culture patterns already given--without taking away from the contact time in the foreign language.

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